



IUCN Style Manual



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Frequently Asked Questions

- [Do I use British or American spellings?](#)
- [Do I use 's' or 'z'?](#)
- [Do I use single or double quotation marks?](#)
- [Which words should be capitalised?](#)
- [How do I punctuate references and bibliographies?](#)
- [Do I use endnotes or footnotes?](#)
- [How do I cite references in text?](#)
- [Do I hyphenate compass points?](#)
- [Should acronyms be punctuated?](#)
- [Which words or phrases should be italicised?](#)
- [How about gender-sensitive and politically-correct terminology?](#)

Introduction

The **IUCN Style Manual** has been prepared for all IUCN staff, writers, editors, designers and anyone else involved in the writing and production of an IUCN publication, both print and online, or any other written document in English. Since other languages have their own grammar and spelling rules, this Manual only discusses rules and conventions for the English language. However, Appendix 1 provides some additional information on a number of conventions specific to French and Spanish.

The **IUCN Style Manual** is the guide to the 'IUCN House Style'. Its intended purpose is to ensure that the language used in IUCN publications is clear and correct and that abbreviations, grammar, spellings, scientific terminology, etc. are consistent and follow established norms.

Just as the IUCN brand helps to ensure that IUCN products are readily identified as belonging to IUCN, so a house style ensures consistency of language use across all IUCN content. Inconsistencies that have no specific purpose distract the reader. A House Style helps the reader to concentrate on *what* a writer is saying.

This Style Manual is one of a range of guides developed by IUCN Publications and the Global Communications Division to assist in the production of IUCN publications and communications materials. It should therefore be used in conjunction with the [IUCN Brand Book](#), the [IUCN Publishing Guidelines](#), and the [IUCN Glossary of Translated Terms](#).

Every effort has been made to include the most useful information in these pages. However, if there are items you would like to see included, we would welcome your input and suggestions. Please send comments to the Publications Officer (publishing@iucn.org).

What will you find in this manual?

Within these pages you will find a comprehensive guide to some of the most frequently asked questions during the writing process, including:

- [Abbreviations](#)
- [Acronyms](#)
- [Apostrophes](#)
- [Bibliographies](#)
- [Boxes, tables and figures](#)
- [Brackets](#)
- [Capitalisation](#)
- [Captions](#)
- [Chapter titles](#)
- [Citations](#)
- [Common spellings: 's' vs 'z'](#)
- [Compass points](#)
- [Contentious words/phrases](#)
- [Cross references](#)
- [Currencies](#)
- [Dashes: em dashes, en dashes, hyphens](#)
- [Dates](#)
- [Emphasis](#)
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- [Geographical information](#)
- [Grammar: active vs passive](#)
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- [Hyphenation](#)
- [Indexes](#)
- [Italics](#)
- [Jargon](#)
- [Legal texts](#)
- [Lists](#)
- [Notes and references](#)
- [Numbers](#)
- [Punctuation: apostrophes, commas, full-stops, question marks, exclamations, quotation marks](#)
- [Quotations](#)
- [References](#)
- [Spacing](#)
- [Spelling](#)
- [Symbols/units of measurement](#)
- [Titles](#)
- [Writing](#)
- [Word division](#)

These items are divided into the following general categories:

- [Writing and grammar](#)
- [Spelling](#)

- [Punctuation](#)
- [Units of measure](#)
- [Abbreviations and acronyms](#)
- [Italics and emphasis](#)
- [Supporting matter: references, footnotes, endnotes, bibliographies, indexes, cross-referencing](#)
- [Quotes and quotation](#)
- [Visual content](#)

Appendices

- [Appendix 1: Translation](#)
- [Appendix 2: IUCN-specific spellings](#)
- [Appendix 3: Common spellings for IUCN usage](#)
- [Appendix 4: IUCN Statutory regions and country names](#)
- [Appendix 5: Other IUCN resources](#)

Writing and grammar

The centre piece of any written document is and always will be the writing. Although the graphic presentation, layout, use of colour and images, and format, are all very important features of any written document, if the writing is not clear, the document will not stand up to scrutiny and ultimately will not achieve its aim. Indeed, a poorly written document can actually be counter-productive.

Before you begin writing: unless you are formatting the publication yourself ready for printing, keep formatting to a minimum. Your text, most commonly prepared as a Word document, will be imported into a design software programme which strips the original formatting. Particular attention is needed when italics are embedded; it may be necessary to go through the text and manually indicate the terms to be italicised.

Although writing is a skill, it needn't be done solely by experts. By following a few simple rules and language conventions, anyone can write clearly and competently.

Keep it simple

- Spare a thought for the reader, write simply. To ensure that a publication captures and holds the attention of the reader, it is vital to write simply and remain focused.
- Avoid long, convoluted sentences with many asides. Try to include no more than two ideas in a sentence.
- When there are alternative words (synonyms) for the same idea, object, etc. try to use the simpler vocabulary and commonplace words that have passed into regular usage, rather than more complicated, and possibly more obscure, wording.
- This is particularly important in an organisation such as IUCN where written documents are often read by people for whom English is not their mother tongue.

Active vs Passive tense

- Always try to use the active tense when writing. Text written in the active tense tends to be shorter, clearer and presents the important information up front.
 - Using the active tense means that the subject is actually doing the

action, e.g. The dog bit the boy.
He kicked the ball.

Rather than

The boy was bitten by the dog.
The ball was kicked by the boy.

Avoid jargon and ethno-centric phraseology

- Jargon does not often add to what is being written. Remember, you are trying to communicate a message, not demonstrate your knowledge of the language! See the list of commonly used jargon – to be avoided – in Appendix 3.

- The same is true of ethno-centric phraseology. Again, this is important given that the audience for IUCN publications includes people who are not of English mother tongue. For example, phrases like 'he could no longer see the wood for the trees' might not mean anything to a Touareg living on the edge of a desert!
- Keep in mind also that if a publication is planned for translation, depending on the language, it may not even be possible to translate concepts such as the 'wood for the trees.'

Contentious words and phrases

- In an international and multicultural organisation like IUCN, it is very important to avoid contentious words and phrases as well as discriminatory and/or politically incorrect language that could cause offence. Wherever possible, use gender-neutral, non-discriminatory language and terminology.
- Sometimes, however, it is a little more difficult and/or cumbersome to use gender-neutral language, particularly when referring to individuals where the gender is not known, e.g.

The intern is responsible for his/her own accommodation.

- The inclusion of the *his/her* alternative is cumbersome, breaks the flow of the text and can detract from the reader's attention. Wherever possible it should be avoided and sentences should be re-written using alternatives, e.g.

Interns are responsible for their own accommodation.

- Some terms are gender-specific, e.g. Chairman, workman, foreman, policeman, fisherman, fireman, etc. However, it is possible to re-write many of these terms in language that is not gender-specific. Wherever possible alternative forms should be used, e.g.

Chairman	<i>use</i>	Chair/chairperson
Workman	<i>use</i>	Worker
Foreman	<i>use</i>	Supervisor
Policeman	<i>use</i>	Police Officer
Fisherman/men	<i>use</i>	Fisher/fishers/fisher folk
Fireman	<i>use</i>	Fire fighters

Geographical information

- Particular caution should be exercised when referring to country names, territories or national boundaries. Some of these are contentious. To avoid problems at a later date, remember to always include the geographical disclaimer in any document or publication produced by IUCN (see the *IUCN Publishing Guidelines* for the text of the disclaimer).
- The use of country names in IUCN has been defined by the Statutes (see Appendix 4 for a list of IUCN Statutory regions and country names) and is based on the United Nations list of countries, e.g.

Viet Nam *not* Vietnam

- Note that it has become common practice to use 'US' and 'UK' (no full stops) rather than their longer official names as included in the list of countries mentioned above.

Grammar

- In English, there are specific conventions governing the use of grammar. For a written document to read well it is important to respect the basic rules of grammar.
- There are far too many conventions governing the use of English grammar to describe them all here. Any additional questions not contained in this Manual can be directed to the Publications Officer (publishing@iucn.org).

Spelling

English vs American spelling

- IUCN uses British English, as opposed to American English, as its preferred language for written materials. So, where alternative spelling exists for the same word, the British spelling should be used.

For example, 'colour' should be written in preference to the American spelling 'color', and 'programme' in preference to 'program'.

- Some words have alternative spellings, e.g. focused and focussed. When in doubt, IUCN has chosen the *Oxford English Dictionary* as the guide to spelling. In this case, use the first spelling proposed in the *dictionary*.

Tip: Make sure that the language setting for your Word document has been set to British English. When doing so, any alternate spellings will show as errors and/or will be corrected automatically.

- There are two exceptions to this. When transcribing a quoted text, always transcribe spellings as they appear in the original text (see section on Quotes and quotation, *below*). Or, when an organisation or institution uses American spelling in its original name, references to the organisation or institution should respect the official usage made by the organisation.

'-S-' vs '-Z-'

- The most common British practice is to use 's' rather than 'z' in words ending in '-ise' and '-isation' (e.g. organise and organisation). Although the *Oxford English Dictionary* provides both spellings, the one to be used for IUCN documents is '-ise', e.g.

<i>use</i>	organise	<i>not</i>	organize
	liberalisation		liberalization
	globalise		globalize

- There is another set of words for which the *Oxford English Dictionary* proposes both the '-ise' and the '-ize' formula. For IUCN documents, the '-ise' form should be used, e.g.

<i>use</i>	recognise	<i>not</i>	recognize
	emphasised		emphasized
	criticise		criticize

- Words that are derived from Greek, e.g. 'analyse' or 'catalyse', always take an '-s-' and *not* a '-z-'.
- Words like 'devise', 'surprise', 'supervise', 'surmise', where the '-ise' sound is not a suffix but part of the root of the word, always use '-ise'.
- There are two exceptions to the 's' vs 'z' rule. The first is when quoting from text, spellings must always be transcribed as they appear in the original text. The second is when an organisation uses a 'z' rather than an 's' in the official spelling of its name, e.g. International Labour Organization. When in doubt, check the official spellings on the website of the organisation.

Alternative spellings

- There are a number of words with alternative spellings. When in doubt about which to use, always use the British variant of the word, e.g.

<i>use</i>	acknowledgement	<i>not</i>	acknowledgment
	learnt		learned
	spilt		spilled

- Care should be taken when using the words 'judgement' and 'judgment', as both spellings exist in British English and should be used according to the desired definition. 'Judgement' refers to a moral, practical decision and 'judgment' (in the legal context) refers to a judge's or court's formal ruling.
- Note that there are several words which once took a hyphen in British English, e.g. co-operate and co-ordinate, but which are now listed in the *Oxford English Dictionary* without the hyphen, e.g.

cooperate

coordinate

Hyphenation: compound terms, word splits

- Hyphens can be of two types: either to join together compound words or compound terms or to indicate a word split at the end of a line.

Compound terms

- Compound terms can be open, where the terms are written as words separated by a space, e.g. long term; hyphenated, where the terms are separated by a hyphen, e.g. long-term; or closed, where the term is written as a single word, e.g. multinational. In the case of the latter, new or innovative compound terms are often introduced to a language in their hyphenated form and as their use becomes commonplace, the hyphen is removed leaving them as closed compound terms, e.g. multinational.
- Note that when compound terms are used as adjectives rather than nouns, the words should be hyphenated, e.g.

	a long-term solution	This is not a good solution for the long term
	an up-to-date user guide	This user guide is not up to date
or	land-use-related	

- IUCN's preference is for closed compound terms, e.g. multinational, salesman, once they have passed into everyday language and their use has become commonplace.
- Note that the word 'online' should be written as one word and not hyphenated.
- When this is not the case, IUCN prefers open compound terms, e.g. long term.
- In some instances, hyphenation of compound words is necessary in order to clarify the true meaning of the phrase. In such cases, particular attention should be paid to where the hyphen is placed. Indeed, the position of the hyphen can change the meaning of the sentence or phrase. For example, 'a little-known species' is a species about which little is known, while a 'little known species' is a small but known species!

- Hyphens should also be used to avoid confusion, e.g. re-creation or re-sign, or mispronunciation, for example when there are two or more vowels or consonants, e.g. anti-environmental, re-enter or shell-like.
- Hyphens can also be used to indicate the omission of a common element to avoid repetition, e.g. long- and short-term.
- Prefixes and combining forms that appear before a capitalised name, numeral or date should be hyphenated, e.g. mid-August, pre-2001, anti-Darwinist.
- Suffixes should be hyphenated or closed. They should never be separated from the word by a space. The suffixes -like and -less should be hyphenated if the preceding word contains two 'l's, e.g. shell-like. Suffixes that have entered into common usage need not be hyphenated, e.g. wildlife, worldwide.
- Double-barrelled names and their abbreviations should be hyphenated, e.g. Jean-Jacques Rousseau, J.-J. Rousseau, as should compound items where the first term cannot stand alone, e.g. Rolls-Royce.

Word splits

- The IUCN visual identity allows both justified and non-justified texts. Justified texts and narrow settings mean that it will sometimes be necessary to split single words at the end of a line. This split is denoted by a hyphen.
- Although hyphenation is sometimes necessary with justified text, the preference is for text not to be hyphenated. Hyphenation should never be used with non-justified text.
- Standard rules for hyphenation have been built into most typesetting and word processing programmes. However, care should be taken to ensure that when using this feature it is set to English, as hyphenation rules differ for all languages. It is suggested that a 'spot check' also be done to verify the accuracy of the automatic hyphenation.
- There are many rules that must be respected when splitting words with a hyphen¹; below are some of the more common ones:
 1. Words should be divided between syllables
 2. Single syllable words and words pronounced as one syllable should not be divided, e.g. here, there, helped, passed
 3. Letters pronounced as one sound should not be divided, e.g. ph, gn
 4. Word endings pronounced as one syllable should not be divided, e.g. -cious, -cion, -tion
 5. Avoid dividing verbs ending in -ed, -ted, -er, e.g. wounded, hunted
 6. Do not divide a word to leave a silent syllable, e.g. people
 7. Never leave one letter and try not to leave fewer than three letters before or after a word division. If this is not possible, two letters should come before the word break rather than after, e.g. in-spire, de-fence
 8. Divide hyphenated words at the existing hyphen, do not introduce new hyphens, e.g. counter-clockwise and *not* counter-clock-wise
 9. Divide compound words according to etymology, e.g. tele-vision, station-master, except where it might lead to confusion, e.g. antipo-des *not* anti-podes
 10. Divide most gerunds and present participles at -ing, e.g. carry-ing, tell-ing

¹ Note that different rules govern hyphenation depending on the language. The current section is relevant to hyphenation in English. For details of other languages please refer to the appropriate language reference books or sources.

- If the final consonant before -ing is doubled, break the word between the consonants, e.g. occur-ring
 - If the division is not obvious, divide words after a vowel and carry over the consonant, e.g. preju-dice, insti-gate
 - Avoid division that may change the pronunciation or meaning of a word, e.g. exact-ing but *not* ex-acting, le-gend but *not* leg-end
 - Words that cannot be divided without an odd effect should be left, e.g. beauty, sluicing
- Do not end a column or a typeset page with a divided word.
 - Other items that should not be split or carried over to the next line include abbreviations, acronyms and numbers.
 - Wherever possible avoid splitting place names or personal names.
 - For further specific information about word splits and hyphenation, consult a specialised dictionary.
 - Other uses for hyphens will be dealt with in the relevant part of this manual, e.g. compass points, numbers, etc.

Dashes: ‘en’ dash

- In English there are two principal types of dash: the ‘en’ dash and the ‘em’ dash. The ‘en’ dash (or: ‘en’ rule), so called because it is the width of the printed ‘N’ character, is longer than a hyphen but shorter than an ‘em’ dash (see *below*). It is used to enclose a sentence or phrase within a sentence, e.g.

The presence of the new species – that scientists suspected existed – was confirmed last week.

- It provides greater emphasis than parentheses, e.g.

The presence of the new species (that scientists suspected existed) was confirmed last week.

- When an ‘en’ rule is used to enclose text within a sentence for emphasis, no punctuation should be used either immediately before or after the rule, save for an exclamation mark. The first letter of the phrase should not be capitalised unless it is a proper name.

Note that in Spanish, the ‘en’ rule is used differently. Instead of a space on either side, there should only be a space before the ‘en’ rule at the beginning of the enclosed text and after it at the end of the text, e.g.

Esta publicación –el primer examen amplio de la literatura mundial– contiene todos los ...

For French, the ‘en’ rule should be used as in English. See [Appendix 1: Translation](#) for further clarification.

- The ‘en’ dash is also used to join elements that form part of a range, e.g. dates, years and numbers

Monday–Friday
2–22 February
2019–2020
pp. 56–61

Note that in French and Spanish (see [Appendix 1](#)), a simple hyphen, and not the ‘en’ dash, is used to show a sequence of numbers, years, dates, e.g.

*2-22 février and 2-22 febrero
2019-2020
pp. 56-61*

- It can be used to replace the words ‘to’ and ‘and’ between two elements of equal importance, between two elements that can be reversed, or when the first element cannot stand alone, e.g.

North–South divide

- It can be used to indicate two, or more, authors, e.g.

Brown–Jones

Dashes: ‘em’ dash

- The ‘em’ dash (or: ‘em’ rule), so called because it is the width of the printed ‘M’ character, can be used to indicate an omission at the beginning of a quoted text, e.g.

‘—is not true’.

- It can be used to indicate the omission of part of a word, e.g.

The zoo in the northern city of S—

- It can be used in an index to indicate a repeated word.
- A double ‘em’ rule —— can be used in a bibliographic entry to indicate a repeated author’s name in successive bibliographic entries (see section on Bibliography, *below*).

Compass points

- When written out in full, compass points should be lower case and hyphenated, unless they are part of a proper name, or written at the start of a sentence.

north	south	east	west
north-east	south-west	east-north-east	

- When used in their abbreviated form, e.g. N, S, E, W, NE, SW, etc. they should be upper case and should not be followed by a full-stop.
- If they are part of a proper name, or when they denote a recognised geographical or political area, they must be capitalised and hyphenated where appropriate:

North America	northern US
South-East Asia*	
North Africa	the north of Africa
East Africa	east African
South Africa	southern Africa
West Africa	west African
North–South divide	<i>(note the use of the en rule)</i>
South America	
East Coast (of the USA)	east coast of Africa
West Coast (of the USA)	west coast of Africa
East Indies	
West Indies	

*Southeast Asia is also acceptable and more common.

- Winds are written in lower case without hyphens.

southwester; northwester

Capitalisation

- Capital letters should be used to start sentences, e.g.

At the start of the second session of the day, ...

- Capital letters should also be used for
 - Proper names John Smith
 - Place, country names and nationalities Kenya, Paris, Trafalgar Square, German, Bolivian
 - Mountains, rivers, oceans and islands Himalaya Mountains, Indian Ocean, Mississippi River, *but* the river Elbe
 - Recognised geographical, political, legendary or popular names the City (London's financial district), Mexico City, *but* the city of London, the State of Texas, *but* the state when referring to a country, the Blair Government, *but* the government of the UK
 - Days of the week, months, festivals Monday, February, Easter, Christmas, Ramadan, Passover, New Year's Day (seasons, e.g. winter, summer, should only be capitalised when they are personified, *Winter spread his white coat across the hills*)
 - Compass points when they denote a recognised geographical or political area South Africa, *but* southern Africa facing north, *but* North–South North America, *but* northern USA

Capitalisation of headings and titles

- Titles of IUCN publications should be written in lower case, i.e. first letter capitalised followed by lower case. Names and proper nouns should of course be capitalised. In titles with a sub-title, the sub-title should also be in lower case except for the first letter.

Business and biodiversity

Conservation on private lands: The Australian experience

- Within IUCN publications, chapter headings, paragraph headings, titles and sub-titles should also be written in lower case.

Punctuation

The mark of a clear, easy-to-read text is one that requires minimal punctuation. Avoid very long sentences. Do not include more than two ideas in a single sentence. Try to avoid the use of brackets, except where absolutely necessary. Avoid using asides enclosed in en rules (– text –) unless it is fundamental to an understanding of the text. Avoid sentences within sentences.

Punctuation includes full-stops (.), commas (,), semi-colons (;), colons (:), apostrophes (’), question marks and exclamation marks (? and !), quotation marks (single ‘ and double “), brackets () and ellipses (...).

In a written document, punctuation is extremely important as it replaces the inflections, intonations and emphasis delivered orally when an individual is speaking. Misuse of punctuation can alter the sense of a sentence or phrase entirely.

Full-stops (also known as ‘periods’ in US English)

- Besides being used to indicate the end of a sentence or paragraph, full-stops are used at the end of abbreviations, unless the abbreviation ends with the last letter of the word

For example	e.g.
That is (Latin <i>id est</i>)	i.e.
Organisation	org.
Abbreviation	abbr.
Associate Professor	Assoc. Prof.
Mister	Mr
Doctor	Dr
International	Intl or Int’l

Commas (,)

- Commas are used to separate items that appear as a list within a sentence, e.g.

The shopping list contained eggs, butter, bacon, salad and jam.

- In British English (as opposed to American English) it is not necessary to include a comma before the ‘and’, unless each item within the list contains multiple items in which it may be necessary to ensure clarity, e.g.

He ordered bacon and eggs, ham and cheese, and coffee for breakfast.

- After a dependent introductory clause, a comma is used to separate the introductory clause from the independent clause, e.g.

Because it was still raining, the concert in the park was postponed.

- But, when an introductory clause consists of only 3-4 words, the comma separating the introductory clause from the main clause may or may not be used, e.g.

Grabbing her umbrella (,) Kate ran out of the house.

- A comma can be used when an introductory dependent clause contains a date, e.g.

In 1948, IUCN, International Union for Conservation of Nature, was established.

In March, we celebrate my sister's birthday.

On Friday evening, we are going to a concert.

- Commas are also used to indicate a brief aside within a sentence, e.g.

The giant panda, which comes from China, is in danger of extinction

- Commas can be used to indicate two ideas within a single sentence or a change of direction within a sentence, e.g.

Given that the panda's existence is so threatened, it is important to make every effort to save it.

Semi-colons (;)

- A semi-colon is stronger than a comma and weaker than a full-stop. Semi-colons are used to combine two or more main clauses within a sentence, when commas would not provide sufficient clarity and when using full-stops would lead to too many disjointed sentences. They are also used when one clause explains another, e.g.

The habitat is being destroyed rapidly; the species' very survival is threatened.

- Semi-colons should also be used in sentences that are already divided by commas, to avoid confusion, e.g.

The species, which inhabits wet and humid regions, mates for life; its young are born at the beginning of spring, the traditional birthing season.

- Semi-colons should also be used when any of the elements of the sentence are divided by commas, to avoid confusion and clarify the hierarchy of elements, e.g.

Scientists explained that they had tried to re-create the animal's natural habitat, in itself an innovative step; that they had then moved the animals, along with their young, into the enclosure; and finally, they had taken up their posts for observation.

However, semi-colons should not be used as an 'excuse' to write overly long sentences. Always keep sentences short and concise.

- Since it is always best to avoid beginning a new sentence with a symbol, a semi-colon can replace a full-stop and avoid this, e.g.

Some 90% of the population live in abject poverty; 10% of the population are very affluent.

Colons (:)

- A colon is used to indicate that the next part of the sentence follows on logically from what has been said previously: from cause to effect, from statement to conclusion, etc.

The giant panda, the black rhino and the Bengal tiger have one thing in common: they are all endangered.

- A colon is used to introduce a list, e.g.

To measure the fish population you will need the following: SCUBA equipment, an underwater lamp, a boat ...

- A colon can be used to introduce a bulleted or numbered list. It can also be used to introduce a direct quote (see section on Quotes and quotation, *below*).
- In British English the word immediately following the colon is not capitalised unless it is a proper name or noun, except in the case of sub-titles (see *below*).
- Colons can be used to introduce a sub-title in the title of a work, e.g.

Linkages in the landscape: A review of their conservation value

Apostrophes (')

- Apostrophes are used to denote possession, e.g.

The panda's habitat

The animal's source of food

- They are used after plural nouns that do not end in an 's', e.g.

People's rights women's movement

- When the plural of a noun ends in an 's', the apostrophe should be placed at the end of the word to denote possession, e.g.

The pandas' habitat

The species' survival

The countries' environmental laws

- However, please note that when using the pronoun 'it' to denote possession there is no apostrophe, e.g.

Its habitat

- The use of 'it's' to denote possession is one of the most common errors in the English language! The word 'it' followed by an apostrophe 's' is a contraction of 'it is', e.g.

It's habitual for the animal to leave its habitat during the mating season.

- Apostrophes are used to denote omitted letters in contractions. The apostrophe should be placed where a letter or letters have been omitted, e.g.

Can't	Cannot
Doesn't	Does not
Hasn't	Has not

- Apostrophe and 's' are generally used after names that end in an s, x or z sound, e.g.

Jones's dictionary

- However, it is common to use a single apostrophe after classical names ending in 's', e.g.

Mars'	Venus'
-------	--------

- A single apostrophe and 's' can be used where two nouns are acting together, e.g.

IUCN and WWF's collaboration

Gilbert and Sullivan's musicals

- Two nouns that are placed together but are separate each require an apostrophe 's', e.g.

IUCN's and WWF's policies

Single or multiple letters, hyphenated coinages, and numbers used as nouns form the plural by adding 's' alone (however, sometimes, for the sake of clarity it is acceptable to use an apostrophe 's'), e.g.

It may be necessary to dot the Is and cross the Ts.

In the early 1920s...; In the 80s and 90s

All MOUs were signed.

Question marks (?) and exclamation marks (!)

- Question marks are placed at the end of a phrase or sentence to show that it is a question. In English, contrary to French for example, it is not necessary to insert a space between the last character and the question mark, e.g.

How has the species survived this long?

- Question marks can also be used to express uncertainty. For example, if the exact date of a publication is not known it can be written as

? 1976

- Exclamation marks are used at the end of a phrase or sentence to denote emphasis, surprise, an order and sometimes, humour, e.g.

Its very survival depends upon it!

Stop! He insisted.

- In serious scientific writing, exclamation marks should be used sparingly, if at all. As with the question mark, no space should be inserted between the final character and the exclamation mark.

Quotation marks (“”, “”)

- Quotation marks are also known as inverted commas or speech marks. They are used to denote passages quoted from other works or words and thoughts of third parties that are reported in the text.
- Quotations are normally incorporated into running text. However, when a quoted passage is longer than three lines, the quotation should take the form of an indented paragraph, in the same size and font as the body of the text.
- There are two types of quotation marks: ‘single’ and “double”. In IUCN documents, ordinary quotations should be enclosed in double quotation marks. However, when there is quoted material within the quoted material, single quotation marks should be used to indicate this, e.g.

Isabelle Dubois, who works on the restoration project says: “It will take many years for the wetland to be fully restored, but my colleagues reassure me that ‘there are definite signs of recovery.’ So I am hopeful.”

- In the rare event that there is a second quote contained within the quoted material, you should revert to double quotation marks to indicate this.
- To emphasise a particular word or part of a sentence, or to indicate jargon or buzzwords, single quotation marks should be used, e.g.

The term ‘flower power’ was coined in the late 1960s and early 1970s.

In this case, quotation marks need only be used at the first occurrence of the word or phrase in a work; thereafter the word may be considered to be fully assimilated and quotation marks will no longer be needed.

Quotation marks and punctuation

- There are two different practices for treating punctuation when using quotation marks, one for American English and one for British English.
- IUCN uses the American English practice whereby the punctuation is enclosed within the double quotation marks regardless of whether the punctuation actually belongs to the quoted matter or not, e.g.

“You need to count the number of species,” he said, “as they are rapidly declining.”

- An exception exists, however, for the question mark and the exclamation point, both of which should be placed within the quotation marks only when they are part of the quoted material, e.g.

The marine biologists asked, “What can we do to protect our oceans?”
But

Why did the marine biologists ask “what could be done to protect the oceans”?

The marine biologists cried out, “We need to protect our oceans!”
But

The marine biologists cried out that there is a “need to protect the oceans”!

- Note that when a quotation preceding the introductory element of a sentence is a question mark or exclamation point, there is no need for a comma to separate the two parts, e.g.

“Do you need to assess the management of this protected area?” he asked.

- When using single quotes to emphasise a word or term, the punctuation should be placed outside the single quotes, e.g.

The terms ‘flower power’, ‘information superhighway’ and ‘hippie’ were coined in the 1960s and 1970s.

- For further information on material to be enclosed in quotation marks, see section on Quotes and quotation, *below*.

Brackets (), []

- Round brackets (), also known as parentheses, are used for digressions, asides, to explain secondary information and to enclose abbreviations and acronyms.

The World Health Organization (WHO) has issued the following statement.

Or

Scientists are locked in a race against time (and it’s running out fast) to save the giant panda.

- Round brackets can also be used to enclose references within texts (for more information, see section on References, *below*), e.g.

One recent theory (McNeely, 2012)

- Wherever possible, avoid repetition of brackets. Sometimes this will not be possible, in which case it is acceptable, e.g.

... (according to scientists (McNeely, 2012)).

- Square brackets [] are used for subsequent comments added by an author or editor or to indicate or explain omissions in quoted text, e.g.

The people [of Madagascar] are anxious to protect their environment ...

In those days [the 1990s] ...

Brackets and punctuation

- The rules governing punctuation with brackets are very similar to those governing quotation marks: if the brackets are used to enclose a complete sentence, end punctuation should be enclosed within the brackets, e.g.

(Scientists hope that they will succeed in saving the ecosystem.)

Or

(What else could they do about it?)

- If the brackets are used to enclose an aside within a sentence, punctuation should be placed outside the brackets, e.g.

The scientists packed up their equipment (until the next time).

- Wherever possible, avoid having punctuation inside and outside the brackets. Sometimes this will be inevitable, in which case it is acceptable, e.g.

The environmental pollution law was adopted by a slim majority (scientists were relieved!).

Ellipsis (plural ellipses) (...)

- An ellipsis (plural ellipses) consists of three dots (...), with a space at the beginning and the end. It is used to indicate an omission within a text or a quote, a sense of suspense, or to indicate the trailing off of a sentence or quote.
- If the omission occurs in the middle of a sentence, this is indicated by an ellipsis that is preceded and followed by a space, e.g.

Scientists could not fathom ... what had destroyed the habitat.

- If an ellipsis is used at the end of a sentence that peters out or to create a sense of suspense, the final full-stop is not required, e.g.

The fishing community did not understand why the stocks were so low ...

- However, if a complete sentence has been omitted, the ellipsis must be preceded by a full-stop and the sentence that follows must begin with a capital letter, e.g.

The fishing community did not understand why the stocks were so low. ...
However, it had been an unusually dry season.

- If the ellipsis features in a phrase embedded in a full sentence, e.g. in a quote, a full-stop must be placed at the end of the sentence, e.g.

He said, 'I can't come as I will be away ...'.

- For further details of ellipses in quoted material, see section on Quotes and quotation, *below*.

Punctuation in vertical lists

- Vertical lists (i.e. where the items appear one beneath the other) can be marked by numbers or letters, bullet points or nothing. The choice of which is best will depend upon the context and is left to the discretion of the author. Always ensure that the chosen markers are consistent.
- The sentence or phrase that precedes and introduces the list should end either in a full-stop or a colon.
- If the items listed are complete sentences they should begin with a capital letter and end with a full-stop. If they are not complete sentences, no full-stop should be used.
- If the items listed are longish phrases with internal punctuation they should begin with a capital letter and end with a semi-colon.
- If the items listed are longish phrases with no internal punctuation they should begin with a capital letter and can end with a comma, though a semi-colon is also acceptable.
- In the two preceding cases, the final element should be followed by a full-stop. The penultimate element should be followed by 'and' or 'or'.
- If the list is short and includes fragments of sentences, elements should be lower case. The final element should end with a full-stop, e.g.

To measure this indicator you will need:

- *paper*
- *pens*
- *tape measures*

- If the list is marked by letters, e.g. a, b, c, etc., these may either be followed by a full-stop or enclosed in brackets, e.g. (a), (b), etc.

Spacing and punctuation

- Commas, full-stops, colons and semi-colons should not be preceded by a space, but should all be followed by a single space, e.g.

People, animals, nature and industry

The cat sat on the mat. The cat was hungry.

Here is a list of what you will need: a torch, ...

The panda was bred in captivity; its birth followed years of unsuccessful

attempts at captive breeding.

- There should be no space between an opening parenthesis and the first word in brackets, or between the last letter in the parenthesis and the closing brackets. The same applies to quotation marks. However, en rules should be preceded and followed by a space, e.g.

The house (an old Victorian terrace) and garden

“Stop!” he said.

During the celebrations the organisation – which was celebrating its 50th anniversary – hosted a conference.

Slashes

- Avoid using forward slashes between words in running text as this can appear lazy or indecisive, e.g.

The scientists attended 11 meetings/workshops in a week.

She hoped that there would be a selection of cakes and/or biscuits at the meeting.

Units of measure and numbers

Note that in French and Spanish, there are some differences in the writing of numbers – see also [Annex 1: Translations](#).

Numbers

- Numbers from one to nine should be written in full unless they refer to units of measure (see below). Numbers above nine should be written as numerical figures, e.g. 10; 100.
- In informal phrases where the numbers do not refer to an exact figure, always write the numbers out in full, e.g.

The chances of it happening are one in a million.

- To ensure ease of reading, thousands should be separated by a comma (in English) and never by a space, e.g.

2,999	not 2999	and never	2 999
10,546	not 10546	and never	10 546

Note that in Spanish, thousands should be separated by full stops beginning with five-digit numbers, e.g.

2999	not 2.999
10.546	not 10546

Note that in French, thousands should be separated by an ‘espace insécable’ (inseparable space) beginning with five-digit numbers, e.g.

10 546	not 10546
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For four-digit numbers referring to a quantity – between 1 000 and 9 999 – you may choose whether or not to use an inseparable space, e.g.

2 999 personnes or 2999 personnes

In a table or column with only four-digit numbers, you should not add inseparable spaces. However, when the table or column contains a combination of four- and five-digit numbers, you should use an inseparable space for both four- and five-digit numbers.

- However, please note that dates (see below) are never separated by a comma, e.g.

1963	2006
------	------

- Numbers at the start of sentences or paragraphs should always be written out in full and never as digits, e.g.

Fifteen grouse were spotted outside the reserve.

15 grouse were spotted outside the reserve.

- Sometimes, to ensure clarity, it may be necessary to mix words and figures, e.g.
Thirty 10-year-old children

Ranges of numbers

- Sequences of numbers should be linked by an en dash, e.g.

21–30 45–54

Note that in French and Spanish, the normal hyphen is used between numbers to indicate a sequence, e.g.

21-30 45-54

- When referring to individual page numbers always write them as figures and separate them by a comma, e.g.

Pages 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10

- When referring to consecutive page numbers, for example in references or bibliographies, the ranges should be separated by an en dash, e.g.

pp. 65–74

Note that in French and Spanish, the normal hyphen is used when referring to consecutive page numbers.

Dates

- Dates should always be written in figures in the day, month, year format. The year should never have a comma separating the thousands, e.g.

10 January 1976

- Do not include 'st' or 'th' after the number, e.g. 10th December 1950.
- If the day is named, it should be followed by a comma, e.g.

Tuesday, 28 February 2016
The event takes place on Tuesday, 28 February 2016.

- Use figures for dates, years and centuries, e.g.

10 January 1848
In 1927
The 19th century

- When referring to decades or centuries, it is acceptable to write

The 1960s
The 1820s The
1900s

In such instances, the numbers should be written in the plural without an apostrophe.

- Date ranges should either be written as *from 1900 to 2006*, or 1900–2006, and never as *from 1900–2006*. Never mix *from* and *to* with the en rule.

Note that in French and Spanish, instead of an en dash always use a hyphen.

- In the same way, it is the *1939–1945 war*, but the *war from 1939 to 1945*.
- It is acceptable, for example on a poster or brochure announcing a meeting or conference, to write that the event will take place from 27 February to 3 March using the en rule, e.g.

Conference on Alien Invasive Species Montreal,
Canada
27 February–3 March 2007

Currencies

- Although it is acceptable to write currencies in words, it is preferable to write them by the relevant ISO [currency code](#) or the accepted symbol. Figures should be preceded by the currency code. There should always be a space between the currency code and the figure, but a space is not necessary when using the currency symbol, e.g.

Thirty thousand Swiss Francs	CHF 30,000
Two hundred Danish Krone	DKK 200
Forty Pounds Sterling	£40
Seventy thousand Euros	€70,000

(In the case of dollars, it is important to specify whether they are US or other dollars, e.g. US\$, AUS\$, NZ\$, etc. Exceptionally, a space should be inserted after the currency symbol.)

Twenty thousand US dollars	US\$ 20,000 (or USD)
----------------------------	----------------------

Never separate the currency code or symbol from the figure.

- Where the figure is very high, for the sake of clarity it is better to write the number as words and figures, e.g.

£5 million	<i>or £5m (note that there should not be a space between the figure and the abbreviation)</i>
------------	---

Fractions

- In running text simple fractions should be written out in full and hyphenated, e.g.

three-quarters	two-thirds
<i>But</i>	
one and a half	two and three-quarters <i>(do not use a hyphen between a whole number and a fraction)</i>

- Wherever possible in scientific and statistical works, tables and graphs, write the fractions as figures, e.g.

$\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{3}{4}$, etc.

Decimals

- Decimals may also be used. The decimal point must always be preceded by a 0, e.g.

0.5, 0.75, 1.25, etc.

Note that in some languages, such as French and Spanish, the decimal point is replaced by a comma.

3,4 or 178,47

Units of measure, percentages, etc.

- Numbers that are accompanied by units of measure can be written as figures.

- Units of measure can either be written in full

	or in their abbreviated form., e.g.	metre	m
		kilometres	km
		centimetres	cm
		litre	l
		cubic centilitre	cc
		tonnes	t
		feet	ft
		kilogrammes	kg
		millilitre	ml
		gramme	g
		smaller than	< (e.g. <10 m) avoid using this in text
		greater than	> (e.g. >10 m) avoid using this in text
		kilovolt	kV
		kilowatt	kW

Do not add the letter 's' to units of measurement, e.g. 32 km not 32 kms.

- If written in their abbreviated form, units of measure should not be separated by full-stops and in most instances should be written in lowercase, e.g.

<i>But</i>	km	<i>not</i> KM or k.m.
	kW	<i>not</i> KW or k.w

- When units of measure are used in their abbreviated form, numbers should be written numerically, regardless of whether they are less than or equal to nine. If numbers are written in full, the units of measure should also be written in full, e.g.

3 km *or* three kilometres *or* 3 kilometres *but not* three km

- If you choose to write the number as a figure, you should insert a space between the number and the unit of measurement, e.g.

40,075 km *not* 40,075km

- Whichever form you choose to use, always ensure that there is consistency within the text. Do not write for example:

There were 3 km of open road with fifty centimetres of hedge on each side.

Write either

There were 3 km of open road with 50 cm of hedge on each side.

Or

There were three kilometres of open road with fifty centimetres of hedge on each side.

Percentages and per cent (%)

- There are different conventions for dealing with percentages and the term per cent/percent. IUCN uses the percentage symbol (%) in running text, and the term per cent. When using one or the other in running text, be consistent throughout the document. The % symbol should also be used in graphs and other graphic presentations. Never separate the symbol from the figure.

Note that in French there should be an inseparable space between the % symbol and the figure.

- When using the percentage sign, the number must always be written as a figure, e.g.

5% *not* five %

- Do not begin a sentence with the percentage symbol. It is preferable to rewrite the sentence so that the percentage is referred to further along in the sentence, e.g.

5% of the population is illiterate in some countries of the world.

Rather

In some countries of the world, 5% of the population is illiterate.

Abbreviations and acronyms

Generally speaking, abbreviations fall into three categories: abbreviations, contractions and acronyms.

Abbreviations

- Abbreviations are formed by omitting the end of a word, e.g.

Org.	Organisation
Misc.	Miscellaneous
Co.	Company

- Abbreviations formed in this way should carry a full-stop to indicate that they are abbreviations.
- If an abbreviation ends a sentence, there is no need to include a second full-stop. If the abbreviation does not end the sentence but is followed by punctuation, this should be inserted after the full-stop, e.g.

The book was published by Littlehamptons & Co.

But

Littlehamptons & Co., Smith & Co. and Jones & Co. all published editions of this work.

- When an abbreviation consists of a single capital letter, for example, an author's first name, it should be accompanied by a full-stop, e.g.
 - Smith

When there are two initial letters in a name, both initials are accompanied by a full-stop and should not be separated by a space, e.g.

J.K. Rowling

- However, compass points that are abbreviated to their first letter should be capitalised and not accompanied by a full-stop, e.g.

N, S, E, W

- The same is true of the abbreviation of District of Columbia in Washington, DC. The letters DC should be capitalised without punctuation. However, the DC should always be preceded by a comma, e.g.

Washington, DC

- Equally, UK and USA should not be separated by full-stops.
- Units of measure are often written in their abbreviated form. They should be written in lower case and not contain full-stops, e.g.

kilometre

km

metre	m
ounce	oz
pound	lb
kilogramme	kg
gram	g

Contractions

- Contractions are formed by omitting the middle part of a word, e.g.

Dr	Doctor
Mr	Mister
Vs	Versus

- Contractions of this type can combine upper-case and lower-case characters. They do not need to carry a full-stop.

Acronyms

- Acronyms are formed from the initial letters of several words, e.g.

United Nations	UN
North Atlantic Treaty Organization	NATO
Convention on Biological Diversity	CBD

- Sometimes they are pronounced as words in their own right, e.g.

UNESCO

- Acronyms are usually capitalised, however, for those acronyms that are pronounced as words in their own right (as opposed to what are known as initialisms, e.g. BBC, IUCN, WWF), it is acceptable to capitalise the first letter and lower case the rest, e.g.

Unicef	Unesco
--------	--------

- There should be no full-stops between the individual initials that make up an acronym.

UN	<i>not</i>	U.N.
NATO	<i>not</i>	N.A.T.O.
UK	<i>not</i>	U.K.
USA	<i>not</i>	U.S.A.

- Note that when using acronyms, the first mention of the long form in the text should be accompanied by the acronym in brackets. Thereafter the acronym alone can be used. In a work divided into chapters authored by different people, the first mention in each chapter should be in the long form accompanied by the acronym in brackets, thereafter the acronym will suffice, e.g.

The World Food Programme (WFP) has decided ... WFP employees have found that ...

- Some acronyms are so well known that it is acceptable to use only the short form throughout, without any mention of the long form, e.g.

The UN Security Council passed a motion ...

- In IUCN documents destined for an external readership, acronyms referring to internal structures should be avoided as much as possible. This includes but is not limited to regional office and programme acronyms. However, when it is desirable to use acronyms to avoid repeating long names, the convention described above should be followed.
- In the case of translations: before translating an acronym, it is necessary to check whether or not an official translation of the original acronym exists and – even more important – that this acronym is familiar to the target audience. If no official translation exists, the original acronym should be used (*see below*).
- *Note that when using an original acronym in a French or Spanish translation for the first time, you should add an explanation after the acronym:*

... (*FLR, en anglais*)

... (*FLR, por sus siglas en inglés*)

- Note that if the original acronym is better known and (more frequently) used in the language into which you are translating, then you should use the original acronym. However, when possible, it is preferable to use a “translated” acronym.
- In the case of some rare and unusual acronyms: if a translation of the acronym would not be understood by the audience, it is better to use the long form rather than the acronym.
- When an acronym is only used once or twice in a text, then preference is given to using the long form and not the acronym.

e.g., i.e., et al., pp., viz., etc.

- The abbreviations e.g., et al., etc. (all derived from Latin) are treated slightly differently from other abbreviations and acronyms. They should be lower case and never in *italic*. Please note that e.g. and i.e. should be separated by full-stops and should not be followed by a comma, but should be preceded by commas. Use of the abbreviations e.g. and i.e. should be avoided in running text, where they should be written in full (as ‘for example’; and ‘that is’ or ‘such as’). It is acceptable nonetheless to use them in notes and in parentheses. It is no longer necessary to italicise these terms as they are now frequently used.
- Note that the punctuation of the following Latin-derived abbreviations is treated slightly differently, e.g.

et al.

pp.

viz.

etc.

ca.

Italics and emphasis

Italics are used to indicate emphasis or stress, foreign language words, headings and titles, and for cross-referencing. If using italics, be sure to verify that they appear in the final document, as most desktop publishing programmes strip formatting.

Emphasis

- Use italics to indicate emphasis or stress, e.g.

This report discusses the *economic* reasons for success.

- Note that when a body of text is in italics, the words that would normally be italicised should become normal roman type, e.g.

This report discusses the economic reasons for success.

- Avoid being too liberal with italics for the purposes of emphasis as a text with a large number of italicised words is likely to distract the reader's attention.
- Colloquialisms should not be indicated by italics, but if they are likely to be unfamiliar to readers, they may be indicated by single quotation marks.
- Sometimes **bold** typeface can be used for emphasis, although this is less common. The use of bold for emphasis should be restricted to highlighting rather than emphasis, e.g.

To measure **Indicator 1** you will need ...

Foreign language words

- Use italics to indicate the use of words in a foreign language, e.g.

He needed a *laissez-passer* to go through customs.

- Where a foreign language word, term or phrase has now passed into common usage, there is no need to italicise it, e.g.

He has great *savoir vivre*.

She is full of *joie de vivre*.

- Different languages have different conventions governing the use of italics. For information about the use of italics in French or Spanish, please refer to reference texts in those languages.

Latin words and species names

- Use italics to indicate species names in Latin, e.g.

The box jellyfish (*Chironex fleckeri*)

Note the use of the lower case for the first letter of the common name.

But

Humboldt squid (*Dosidicus gigas*)

Common names which include proper nouns or derivatives of proper nouns are written with just the proper noun capitalised.

- When writing species names in running text, at the first mention, write the common or vulgar name first followed by the Latin name italicised and in brackets. Thereafter, if the species is mentioned again, the common name will suffice.
- If a species is only known by its Latin name and this has become common usage, there is no need to italicise this. In the same way, if a species is usually referred to only by its common name, there is no need to include the Latin.
 - When writing species names in Latin, only the first letter need be capitalised, e.g.

The box jellyfish (*Chironex fleckeri*)

Headings and titles

- The titles of books, magazines, newspapers and other periodicals included in bibliographies, citations, references and running text should always be italicised, e.g.

The class was reading Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre* as its set piece.

- Likewise, the titles of paintings, sculptures and other works of art should be italicised, e.g.

Edvard Munch's *Scream*

Michelangelo's *David*

But

The sculpture of David by Michelangelo

- Titles of plays, films, CDs, DVDs, documentaries and television series should also be italicised.
- Chapter headings, titles of articles in periodicals, short poems, individual episodes of television series, song titles and individual conference/seminar titles should be enclosed in single quotation marks, e.g.

See 'The role of biodiversity', in *How to measure biodiversity loss*

'Planning for Computer Chaos at the Turn of the Millennium', a symposium held at Future City, Atlantis, February–March 1999.

But

the 2007 International Conference on Biodiversity

Common-place quotations

- Certain frequently quoted lines and phrases have become common-place (in English, quotes from Shakespeare or even the Bible, or from films and literature that have achieved cult status) and there is no longer any need to acknowledge the source. Such quotes should be italicised (see section on Quotes and Quotation, *below*).

Cross-references

- Cross-references, whereby you refer the reader to another part of a book, chapter, page, etc. should also be italicised, e.g.

See Chapter 3

Image, *below*

Facing page

Punctuation and italics

- If the punctuation is an integral part of the italicised text, then it too should be italicised. If not, then it should be in standard Roman typeface, e.g.

Who has read *Jane Eyre*? (The question mark is not italicised.)

But

The title of the best-selling Beatles' album was *Help!* (The exclamation is italicised as it is part of the title.)

- If the italicised punctuation naturally concludes a sentence (as in the second example, *above*) there is no need to add further punctuation.

Supporting matter: references, footnotes, endnotes, bibliography, indexes and cross-referencing

Supporting matter

In scientific publications there is often a need to provide more than simply the text and accompanying images, pictures or graphics. Sometimes, pointers are needed to direct readers to other sections or parts of a text or book. Alternatively, readers can be directed to other relevant works and texts on a particular subject, possibly with a view to developing a subject further. It is also important to acknowledge sources of information, quotes and material that are not original.

Sometimes it may be necessary to discuss or develop an argument or material further, without necessarily doing so in the main body of the work. This is achieved through the use of supporting matter which includes references, footnotes, endnotes and bibliographies.

There is a huge variety of reference systems used both across and even within different disciplines, particularly scientific disciplines. In order to ensure consistency IUCN has chosen to adopt the following conventions.

Please note that these systems are not mutually exclusive and sometimes for the sake of clarity it may be necessary to combine systems. When in doubt, always contact the IUCN Publications Officer (publishing@iucn.org).

References and bibliography

- The term 'References' refers only to a list of texts, citations or publications that have been cited within a text. This list is placed either at the end of the individual chapters or sections that make up a publication, or in a consolidated section at the end of a publication.
- The term 'Bibliography' refers to works and texts cited *as well as* works that have been consulted, and can also include other related texts of general interest (further reading). It is placed at the end of a publication.
- The specific formats for presenting references and bibliographies will be discussed later on in this section.

References: the Harvard system

- IUCN has adopted the use of the system of references known as the Harvard system. This system is common in scientific publishing as well as in the social sciences and humanities. This is the system whereby the author's name and the date of publication are included in parentheses within the running text to draw the reader's attention to the full source, which is cited in the Reference section and the Bibliography.

(McNeely, 2002)

- If the author's name appears in the sentence there is no need to repeat it in the parentheses and the date will suffice, e.g.

According to McNeely (2002) ...

- The author's name and the date of publication should be separated by a comma. If there are two authors, their names should be separated by an ampersand, e.g.

(McNeely & Jackson, 2002)

- If there are more than two authors, only the first author's name should be included, followed by the Latin 'et al.' (**never** use italic for et. al.!), e.g.

(McNeely et al., 2002)

- There should never be more than three names, and preferably only two, cited in a reference within running text.

- If multiple works are being cited, these should be separated by a semi-colon, e.g. (McNeely et al., 2002; Jackson, 2002; Price & Jackson, 2002)

- If there are two or more works by a same author published in the same year, the works should be distinguished by the addition of a lower-case alphabetical letter immediately following the date of publication, e.g.

(McNeely, 2002a; McNeely, 2002b)

- The corresponding citations in the references and the bibliography should also include the letters a, b, etc. (*see below*).

Reference sections

- As noted above, the Reference section only lists those texts, sources and publications that have been cited in the text.
- Reference lists are placed either at the end of a section or chapter, or at the end of the publication *before the bibliography*.
- Reference citations are placed in alphabetical order. When there are several publications by the same author, these should be listed chronologically from oldest to newest publication.
- If there are multiple authors of a single work these should be listed in the order in which they appear on the title page of the publication.
- All the authors are listed, unless more than 10 authors (then use: [name of first author] et.al.)
- The correct order for reference citations when using the Harvard (also known as the author–date) system is (all) author(s), date, title, place of publication, publisher. The date is placed immediately after the author's name so that the reader can easily relate it to the reference in the text.
- Note that titles are sacrosanct and should *always* appear as they do in the citation pages of publications or as they appear in the original source materials. They should *not be altered* to fit in with the House Style, i.e. spelling and punctuation should not be changed to reflect House Style but should be left as they appear in the original.
- When a publication is translated into another of IUCN's official languages, the references in the reference list (or bibliography) should *never* be translated. This also concerns the cited references in the running text. The references should remain

exactly as they were, even for the names of the organisation, publisher's name and the city of publication. This is because there is usually an official citation for every publication (found generally on the credits page) and bibliographies should respect these citations. The only instance when it is permitted to replace a reference in a reference list is when a publication has actually been published in the language in question.

- Be sure to include any persistent identifiers such as Digital Object Identifiers (DOIs) if the reference has one. This should be done while your manuscript is still in Microsoft Word so that the DOIs can be included in the final layout, and *before* it is sent to the designer. Crossref (the registration agency for IUCN DOIs) has an online DOI query service that allows you to quickly and easily do a bulk search for DOIs. The Publications Officer can provide you with information on how to register for and use this service.
- A designer can add the hyperlink to the DOI *without* visible underlining when laying out the publication.

Some sample references

Note the order of elements and use of punctuation in the different samples of references (*see here below*).

Books

Pomeroy, R.S., Park, J.E. and Watson, L.M. (2004). *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators for Evaluating Marine Protected Areas Management Effectiveness*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.

Casson, S.A., Vance, M. and Watson, A. (2016). *Wilderness protected areas: management guidelines for IUCN category 1b protected areas*. Best Practice Protected Area Guidelines Series no. 25. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.
<https://doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.CH.2016.PAG.25.en>

Chapter or extract from a book

Margarey, M.E. (1988). 'Examination of the Cervical and Thoracic Spine'. In: R. Grant (ed.) *Physical Therapy of the Cervical and Thoracic Spine*, pp.81–109. New York: Churchill Livingstone.

Multi-volume works

- If all volumes of a work have the same title:

Iza, A. and Aguilar, G. (eds.) (2009). *Biological Diversity in Central America*. Volume 1. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

- If citing the whole multi-volume work, note that the total number of volumes should be included after the title rather than the number of the actual volume used.

If, on the other hand, each volume has a separate title, the citation should be as follows:

Iza, A. (2009). *Forests*. Volume 1, *Biological Diversity in Central America*, Alejandro Iza y Grethel Aguilar (eds.). Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

- The above citation is for a book entitled *Forests* written by A. Iza, which is Volume 1 of the series entitled *Biological Diversity in Central America* edited by Alejandro Iza and Grethel Aguilar.

Articles from periodicals or journals (issues, volumes)

Rips, L.J., Shoben, E.J. and Smith, E.E. (1973). 'Semantic Distance and the Verification of Semantic Relations'. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour* 12:1–20.

Articles from online periodicals or journals

- For online articles or journals it is important to include the DOI or URL, e.g.

Rips, L.J., Shoben, E.J. and Smith, E.E. (1973). 'Semantic Distance and the Verification of Semantic Relations'. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour* 12:1–20. Available at: [DOI or URL] (Accessed: 1 January 2017)

Unpublished or soon to be published works

- Conventions for citing unpublished or forthcoming publications vary. If a book has been accepted for publication this should be noted as *In press*. When a book has not yet been accepted for publication this should be noted as *Forthcoming*, e.g.

McNeely, J. (In press). *The politics of biodiversity: a reader*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

McNeely, J. (Forthcoming). *The politics of biodiversity: a reader*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

- The above citation presumes that the forthcoming book will be published by IUCN in Gland, Switzerland. When the publisher is unknown, only the author and title will figure in the citation.
- If citing an article that is shortly to be published in a journal or periodical, this should be acknowledged as *to be published*, and include the expected year of publication, e.g.

Jones, J. (2006). 'Planting tree saplings in the Amazon'. To be published in *Journal of Amazonian Botany* 5.

Papers delivered during meetings or conferences

- Papers or documents that are delivered at meetings or conferences but that are as yet unpublished should be cited in roman (as opposed to italics) in quotation marks and either the dates of the conference/meeting or the date on which the paper was delivered should be given, e.g.

Smith, D. (2002). 'How the Dodo Died', paper delivered at the Annual Conference of Extinct Species, London, 29 February 2002.

Publications by unknown authors

- If the author is unknown this can be indicated by the term Anonymous (Anon.) in the place of the author name, e.g.

Anon. (2002). *The role of social policy in conservation*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

- Alternatively, this can be indicated by simply giving the title first, e.g.

The role of social policy in conservation (2002). Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

Note: the date of publication now follows the title.

- If the author is known from other sources, this can be indicated by enclosing the author's name in square brackets, e.g.

[Jack Jones] (2006). *From here to extinction: conserving species now*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.

Publications authored by organisations

- Where no author is given, the organisation acting as the author should be cited as such, e.g.

International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (2006). *Progress and Assessment Report 2006*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.

Note that the publisher should be cited *even if the author and publisher are one and the same*.

Publications commissioned by IUCN

- Where IUCN has commissioned a publication or report, the work belongs to IUCN and the organisation and/or authors are generally not cited. They may nevertheless be acknowledged in a paragraph on the credits page, or on an Acknowledgements page with an explanation given as to how the report was commissioned, for what purpose, who authored it, etc. As above, IUCN should be cited as the author, e.g.

International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (2005). *Impacts of Sakhalin II phase 2 on western North Pacific grey whales and related biodiversity: report of the Independent Scientific Review*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.

Academic theses and dissertations

- When citing from theses, dissertations and other academic works, include details of the type of document and the awarding university at the end of the citation, e.g.

Holford-Stevens, L.A. (1971). 'Select Commentary on Aulus Gellius, Book 2'. PhD thesis. Oxford: Oxford University.

Foreign language publications

- If the publication being cited is in a foreign language, the citation should remain in the original language. Where it is desirable to provide the reader with a translation of the title, it should follow the title and be enclosed in parentheses. Roman type should be used with only an initial capital letter, e.g.

Scherl, L.M. (2006). *As áreas protegidas podem contribuir para a redução da pobreza? Oportunidades e limitações* (Can protected areas contribute to poverty reduction? Opportunities and limitations). IUCN, Gland, Suíça e Cambridge, Reino Unido.

Reprinted publications

- If a publication goes out of print and a reprint is necessary, the citation should include the original date of publication, e.g.

Pomeroy, R.S., Park, J.E. and Watson, L.M. (2004). *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators for Evaluating Marine Protected Areas Management Effectiveness*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN. Reprint, Gland, Switzerland: IUCN, 2007.

Please note: the original date of a publication should *remain* in the copyright notice on the credits page. The reprint date should however be indicated also.

Revised editions

- A publication should only be called a second edition if a substantial amount – at least 20 per cent – of the content has been changed. It should be cited as follows:

Pomeroy, R.S., Park, J.E. and Watson, L.M. (2004). *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators for Evaluating Marine Protected Areas Management Effectiveness*. 2nd Edition. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN, 2009.

The copyright dates of *all* editions should be listed in the copyright notice on the credits page.

Revised edition with new title

- The citation changes slightly in the case of a publication whose title has changed from the first to the second edition:

Pomeroy, R.S., Park, J.E. and Watson, L.M. (2009). *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators*. 2nd Edition. First edition published in 2004 as *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators for Evaluating Marine Protected Areas Management Effectiveness*. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN.

Note in all the examples above: if no date of publication is given the copyright date should be used. If a publication is a reprint or updated or revised edition, use the date of the edition consulted.

Citations of material from electronic and other sources

- The advent of electronic media and the proliferation of electronic sources have added a whole new dimension to references and citations.
- At present, there are no real agreed conventions for citing material from electronic sources. The citation of such sources should be consistent with citations of other sources and include a web address or URL if the material was accessed on the internet. If it is not obvious, the platform (e.g. CD-ROM) should be included in square brackets.
- Given the sometimes temporary nature of online texts and material, when citing such sources it is wise to include the date on which the material was accessed. If feasible, it is also a good idea to download or print any articles so as to have a hard copy for future reference.
- The suggested format for citing electronic references is as follows:

Author or editor name. 'Title of article or section used'. *Title of complete work* [type of medium], (date created, published or posted (day, month, year)). Available at: URL or DOI. (Accessed: (day, month, year)).
- Using the template above, a citation could look like this

Jones, Jack. 'The cultivation of saplings in the Amazon rainforest'. *Journal of South American Botany* [online periodical], (15 June 2005). Available at: www.southamericanbotany/info/articles [or DOI, if it exists]. (Accessed: 10 July 2006).
- Remember to specify the type of source in square brackets. Sources can include [website], [online journal], [personal e-mail communication], [online book], [online newsgroup], etc.
- Include any persistent identifiers such as Digital Object Identifiers (DOIs). DO NOT underline complete URLs as the underlining can be confused with the automatic linking that appears as underlining in web addresses.
- Citations for translations (e.g. in an annual report): check first if the publication from which is cited, is already translated, and use the translated citation (and title of the translation). In case no translation available: the quote itself can be translated, but the source (title of the publication where is cited from) and author/organisation's name and place of publication should be kept in the original language.

Citing material from a CD-ROM

- When citing source material from a CD-ROM, follow the conventions outlined above but remember to insert the platform in square brackets. Also include any other digital identifiers or technical details relating to the CD-ROM in square brackets at the end of the citation, e.g.

Pomeroy, R.S., Park, J.E. and Watson, L.M. (2004). *How is your MPA doing? A Guidebook of Natural and Social Indicators for Evaluating Marine Protected Areas Management Effectiveness* [CD-ROM]. Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK: IUCN. [Include any other digital identifiers or numerical references or technical details in square brackets at the end of the citation]

Footnotes

- Footnotes, as their name suggests, appear at the bottom of a page. In running text they are usually identified through numbers (though sometimes they can be identified through symbols) in a smaller font size – and sometimes also a different typeface – than the body of the text and in superscript (i.e. placed slightly above the text). If they occur at the end of a sentence, they should be placed outside the final punctuation. If they occur in mid-sentence, they should be placed against the relevant word, e.g.

The footnote can appear at the end of the sentence.¹ A footnote can appear¹ mid-sentence.

- Footnotes can be used for references or for including other information that is relevant to the text but that the author or editor feels should not necessarily appear in the main body of the text.
- If footnotes are being used for reference purposes, the references should be formatted as described above. However, if there are two or more references to a work on a single page, it is not necessary to repeat the whole formula again. In this case, the following Latin terminology should be employed:

ibid. p.250 [if the source is cited again immediately after the previous reference to the same author]

N.B. Authors should beware of using *ibid.* until final editing has taken place; it can become very difficult to keep track of references if passages of text are restructured during editing.

- The abbreviation *op. cit.* (meaning 'in the work cited') is an abbreviation which should be avoided, as it often requires the reader to look back through the text to locate the preceding citation.
- Footnotes should be numbered consecutively starting with the number 1. It is advisable to restart the numbering with each new chapter. This is because, firstly, if a book is very long and contains many footnotes, there is a risk that the footnotes can run to three digits. Secondly, any deletions or additions of footnotes could require re-numbering all the footnotes within a publication: a copy-editing nightmare!
- Note that footnotes are not incompatible with the Harvard reference system and it is acceptable to combine both should the text require it. However, wherever possible and for the sake of clarity, it is preferable to avoid combining the two systems.

- If the information included in the footnotes is of immediate relevance to the reader, it is worth including these at the bottom of the page. However, if the information is not strictly of immediate relevance and the inclusion of footnotes at the bottom of the page is likely to either distract the reader or result in a page that is more footnote than text, it may be worth including them at the end of a chapter or publication as endnotes.

Endnotes

- Endnotes, as their name suggests, appear either at the end of a chapter or they can be placed at the end of a book or publication.
- Like footnotes, they are identified by numbers in a smaller font size and in superscript and their placement relative to punctuation is the same.
- Like footnotes, endnotes can be used for reference purposes or for additional information or discussions that may be important though not of immediate relevance to the text.

Bibliography

- The term 'Bibliography' refers to works and texts cited as well as works that have been consulted, and can also include other related texts of general interest (further reading). It is placed at the end of a publication.
- Bibliographies can be of various types. A selected bibliography is one that includes only the resources cited or consulted in a text. This would be a select bibliography. (If it only contains information cited in the text, it would be more accurate to call it the list of references.)
- A list of resources that contains all the materials cited in the text, materials consulted for the text and other materials of general relevance to the subject matter is known as a Bibliography. If there is a lot of subsidiary matter, this can also be included in a list of Further Reading.
- If a bibliography is very large, it may be worth breaking it down into several sections. These could include Primary Matter: material and sources that are cited or formed the basis of a text; Secondary Matter: material consulted, though not necessarily cited directly in the text. Sometimes it is also worth dividing a bibliography into books, periodicals, articles, online resources, etc.
- Bibliography entries should be listed in alphabetical order. In works with multiple authors, these should be listed in the order in which they appear on the title page of the publication in question.
- Where the Harvard or author–date referencing system is used, the bibliography should be configured to reflect this.
- The format of the bibliography is very similar to that of the referencing system described above
 - Authors are listed alphabetically
 - All the authors are listed, unless more than 10 authors (then use: [name first author] et al.)
 - Where there are multiple authors they are listed in the order in which

- they appear on the title page
- Multiple publications by a single author are listed chronologically by date of publication
- Multiple publications by a single author in the same year are listed alphabetically by title (ignoring the indefinite article) and a lower case a, b, c, etc. is added to the date to bring it in line with the references within the text, e.g. 2002a, 2002b, etc.
- When there are multiple publications by a single author or authors, it is not necessary to reproduce the names. In the first entry all the names should be cited. In subsequent entries, the authors can be indicated by use of the double em rule (—) (*see below*).
- A sample bibliography could look something like this:

Fahy Bryceson, D. (1993). *Liberalizing Tanzania's Food Trade: Public and Private Faces of Urban Marketing Policy, 1939–1988*. Geneva, Switzerland: UNRISD.

Girardet, E. and Walter, J. (eds.) (1998a). *Essential Field Guides to Humanitarian and Conflict Zones: Afghanistan*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Centre for Humanitarian Reporting.

———. (1998b). *Another book by the same editors*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Centre for Humanitarian Reporting.

Sheriff, A. (1987). *Slaves, Spices and Ivory in Zanzibar: Integration of an East African Commercial Empire into the World Economy, 1770–1873*. Nairobi, Kenya: Heinemann Kenya.

- Note that titles are sacrosanct and should *always* appear as they do in the citation pages of publications or as they appear in the original source materials. They should *not be altered* to fit in with the House Style, i.e. spelling and punctuation should not be changed to reflect House Style but should be left as they appear in the original.
- When a publication is translated into another of IUCN's official languages, the references in the bibliography should not be translated except where a translated version of the reference already exists ([see Appendix 1 on Translation](#)).

Indexes and cross-referencing

- The index contains key concepts and subjects that are covered in a book and allows readers to locate relevant subjects or topics within the book with relative ease.
- Depending on the nature of the work, indexes can be long or short. They usually consist of a key word or subject followed by a series of sub-headings and accompanied by page numbers or ranges of page numbers where the information can be located.
- The key words or concepts are alphabetised and in turn the sub-headings that follow are alphabetised.

- A sample index could look something like this

Childhood diseases 45–70, 65, 72–87,

135

 chicken pox 48

 measles 65

 mumps 72

 rubella 86

Cholera 134–137

- Indexing takes place at the end of the production process and should be carried out using final page proofs to minimise the number of changes required, particularly to page numbers.
- Indexes can also contain cross-references. Cross-references are used to deal with synonyms, words with different spellings (particularly in dictionaries), closely related terms, etc. There are two types of cross-references. The first, which is introduced by *see*, directs the reader to synonyms, e.g.

 Chicken pox, *see* varicella

- In the above example, only the term 'varicella' would have a page reference, 'chicken pox' would not.
- The second variant, introduced by *see also*, directs the reader to a related topic, e.g.

 Biological diversity 25, 34, 59–72

see also diversity

- In this case, the term 'Biological diversity' has page references, but there are no specific entries for 'diversity'. Any additional page references would be found under 'diversity'.
 - Note that proper names in indexes are

 inverted, e.g. Smith, John (economist) 34,

 45

Quotes and quotation

Quoted material can be of two principal types. In its first form, direct speech is quoted and transcribed word for word in the form delivered by the speaker. Such text is usually, though not always (*see below*) enclosed in double quotation marks, also known as speech marks.

In its second form, quoted material can consist of written text or narrative that is transcribed word for word from another source. When original material from other sources is quoted verbatim, this must be acknowledged. To not do so is plagiarism, a serious offence in the scientific, academic and publishing worlds. In addition to citing the source of the material, this acknowledgement can also be made by enclosing the text in double quotation marks (*see below*) or in the case of long texts by offsetting it from the main body of the text.

A third form of quotation is where quoting certain lines and phrases has become so commonplace that there is no longer any need to acknowledge the source. In English, examples would be quotes from Shakespeare or the Bible, and from films and literature that have achieved cult status. Such quotes, unless they are block quotations (*see below*) must be included in running text but nonetheless italicised.

Long quotations or block quotations

- Long quotations, also known as block quotations, i.e. over three lines long, are sometimes set off from the main text by the space of an em rule left and right. This is known as displayed text. It may be set in a smaller font size (usually one point size down) than the main text. It should not be italicised unless the original text includes italics and it should not be enclosed in quotation marks. The displayed text can be indicated by a colon:

This text has been set off from the main body of the text by the space of one em rule both left and right and it is justified. The spacing between the paragraphs has been respected. The quoted block of text does not need to be enclosed in quotation marks and should not be italicised unless the original text contains italics.

- Any quotations within the block quotation will be enclosed by single quotation marks.
- When transcribing or quoting more than one paragraph as an excerpt, the original paragraphing should always be respected.
- If the transcribed or quoted text is not displayed, i.e. not set in a smaller font size, quotation marks are used at the start of each paragraph and at the end of the last one; intermediate paragraphs need not be enclosed by quotation marks at the end of the paragraph.
- The source of the material should be acknowledged using the Harvard style reference system (author–date) if that is the system adopted throughout the rest of the work, or using footnotes or endnotes, depending on the system adopted.
- When quoting large blocks of text in scientific or scholarly works, it is always preferable to retain the features of the original source. One should avoid making changes to capitalisation or changing American spellings to British spellings. If, however, this is necessary, these can be indicated by the use of [*sic*].

Short quotations

- Short quotations should be run in the text and enclosed in double quotation marks. They should be indicated by a comma.
- All the material surrounding run-in quotes, i.e. immediately before and after, should fit in grammatically with the run-in quote. Although a few changes can be made to run-in quotes so that the quote fits in grammatically with the surrounding text, it is best to retain all the features of the quoted text and alter the surrounding material. Any changes made to quoted material should be indicated in square brackets. Again, run-in quotes should be cited using either the Harvard style or using endnotes/footnotes depending on the author or editor's preferred choice for the whole publication.
- Any omissions to quotes, either run-in or displayed, should be indicated by ellipses. Any editorial changes should be indicated by [square brackets].

Visual content

All manner of illustrative material such as photographs, line drawings, charts or infographics (data visualisation) can be used to enhance a text or publication. If they are used, they should be clearly labelled and the numbering or labelling system used should be clear and consistent.

When using images such as photos, artwork, graphs or illustrations from other publications, always make sure to seek permission *before* the manuscript is completed. Sometimes it is already mentioned in the credits page of a publication that images can be used *provided that* the source/credits information is mentioned clearly. In other cases where this is **not** mentioned, you will need to seek permission from the author and/or publisher.

If there are very few graphic presentations, the numbering system used can be sequential. However, if there are many and different varieties, i.e. boxes, tables and photographs, it is sometimes clearer to number them according to the chapter headings.

Always label boxes (Box), tables (Table), line drawings (Illustration or Figure if there are no graphs), graphs (Figure), etc. Always provide credits for photographs as well as figures or illustrations that have been taken from another source.

If you choose only to illustrate a piece of work with graphics of the same type, it is fine to refer to them as Figures. It is acceptable to abbreviate Figure to Fig., although when doing so, ensure that throughout the work all references within the text also refer to Figures or Fig.

When making references to the various graphic presentations within the text, avoid writing (*see image above*) for example, as the position of graphics or images may change with layout. It is always better and less confusing to write (*see Figure 1.4* or *see Fig. 1.4*). Unless necessary, avoid referring to graphic presentations by page number as these too may change with layout.

If there are a large number of visual elements, these should be included in a list of illustrations, graphics, etc. When listing illustrations and graphics, use the same format employed within the text to label them. For example, if the label *Fig.* has been used in the text (in italics), use this same format within the list of illustrations. On the other hand, if figures have been labelled **Figure** (in bold), then this is how the label should appear in the list of illustrations. There are no rules about which is the best format to use for labels, except that once a format is chosen it should be used consistently throughout the text.

Tables

- Tables should always be labelled as 'Tables', and preferably not as 'Figures' although it is acceptable to do so if they are the only graphic presentations within a piece of work.
- If there are only a few tables in a text, they can be numbered sequentially. However, if there are many it is preferable to number them by chapter (e.g. Table 1.1, Table 1.2, Table 2.3, etc.).
- It is usual to place the Table heading above the table. The source of the table and any notes should be placed below the table. The heading does not require any end punctuation.
- Numerical information in tables should always be presented as figures (as opposed to written out in full) and it is usual to use symbols, e.g. % rather than per cent.

Boxes

- As the name suggests, a Box is used to enclose visual or narrative information that is relevant to the main text but that does not necessarily flow in the same way. For example, case studies can be enclosed in boxes. Boxes may or may not be shaded and can use different typefaces and fonts from the main body of the text.
- As with Tables, boxes can be numbered sequentially, or if there are many, they should be numbered by chapter.
- The title of the Box should always be enclosed within the box and placed above the main body of the boxed text. The heading does not require any end punctuation. The source of the material, if relevant, should be placed at the bottom and also enclosed within the box.

Graphs (and pie charts)

- Graphs always carry the label of Figure. As with tables and boxes, if there are many graphs in a piece of work, they should be labelled by chapter.
- Both the x-axis (horizontal) and the y-axis (vertical) of a graph should always be labelled.
- The title of the Figure should always be placed *below* the figure.
- If the title is a full sentence it should have sentence punctuation and end on a full-stop. If not, there should be no end punctuation.
- Pie charts are often used to provide the reader with the same information as graphs. However, bear in mind that pie charts can be difficult to interpret if there are many 'slices' in the pie or if a document will be printed in black and white only.

Illustrations/line drawings

- Illustrations and line drawings (as opposed to photographs) also carry the label Figure.
- As with graphs, the title of the Figure and the accompanying caption should be placed *below* the image.
- If the caption is a full sentence it should be punctuated as such, i.e. with a final full-stop. If not, there should be no end punctuation.
- The copyright information relating to the illustration should be included beneath the caption. If, however, the caption is already very long, copyright information should be included in a list of illustrations.

Photographs

- It is not necessary to add captions to photographs but they should always bear a credit. The caption should always be placed beneath the photograph. If the caption is a full sentence it should be punctuated as such, i.e. with a final full-stop. If not, there should be no end punctuation.
- With (half) page-large photographs, the credit should be placed in either the left or right bottom corner, in a small but clear font. For small photographs, the credit should come directly at the end of the caption.

Appendix 1: Translation

IUCN publications are often translated into other languages. Although this Manual provides guidelines for English publications, there are a number of conventions that must be used when translating IUCN publications into our other statutory languages, French and Spanish. This Appendix provides additional information on some commonly used conventions.

'En' dash

- The 'en' dash, so called because it is the width of the printed 'N' character, is longer than a hyphen but shorter than an 'em' dash (see *below*). It is used to enclose a sentence or phrase within a sentence, and it provides greater emphasis than parentheses.
- *In Spanish, when an 'en' rule is used to enclose text within a sentence for emphasis, there should be a space before the 'en' rule at the beginning of the enclosed text and after it at the end of the text, e.g.*

Esta publicación –el primer examen amplio de la literatura mundial– contiene todos los ...

- *In French, there should be a space on both sides of the 'en' rule, as in English (see Section 5), e.g.*

Cette étude – la première de ce genre dans le monde – contient tous les ...

- When an 'en' rule is used to enclose text within a sentence for emphasis, no punctuation should be used either immediately before or after the rule, save for an exclamation mark. The first letter of the phrase should not be capitalised unless it is a proper name.
- *Contrary to the English use of the 'en' dash to join elements that form part of a range, e.g. dates, years and numbers, in French and Spanish a simple hyphen is used for a sequence of numbers, e.g.*

*2-22 février and 2-22 febrero
2019-2020
pp. 56-61*

- For further details on the 'en' dash and the 'em' dash, see section on [Spelling](#).

Punctuation

- *In French, colons, semi-colons, question marks and exclamation points should be preceded by a inseparable space, e.g.*

*Quel progrès pour la science ! Quelles sont les prochaines démarches ?
Cette espèce est menacée dans plusieurs pays : Brésil, Costa Rica ...*

- To add an ‘inseparable space’ in a French text, place the cursor where the inseparable space should be and click simultaneously on **Ctrl + Enter + the space bar**.
- In Spanish, punctuation is used as in English (see section on [Punctuation](#)).

Numbers

- To ensure ease of reading, numbers larger than 10,000 (five digits) are usually separated by punctuation or spaces, depending upon the language.
- In Spanish, thousands should be separated by full stops beginning with five-digit numbers, e.g.

2999	not 2.999
10.546	not 10546

- In French, thousands should be separated by spaces beginning with five-digit numbers, e.g.

2999	not 2 999
10 546	not 10546

For four-digit numbers referring to a quantity – between 1 000 and 9 999 – you may choose whether or not to use an inseparable space, e.g.

2 999 personnes or 2999 personnes

In a table or column with only four-digit numbers, you should not add inseparable spaces. However, when the table or column contains a combination of four- and five-digit numbers, you should use an inseparable space for both four- and five-digit numbers.

- For further details on numbers, see section on Units of measure and numbers.

Decimals

- In French and Spanish, the decimal point is replaced by a comma, e.g.

0,75 or 1,25 or 178,47

Names of organisations, events, etc. in running text

- When mention of a specific organisation is made in the running text of a publication, the name of the organisation should not be translated unless an official translation by the organisation itself can be found on their website, e.g.

Un de leurs partenaires est The Nature Conservancy.
Un autre est le Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement.

Uno de sus asociados es el Asian Development Bank.
Otro es la Unión Europea.

- The same rule applies to the names of conferences, publications or other official names. However, to give the reader a better understanding of the text, an approximate translation may be follow in brackets.

Supporting matter: citations, references and bibliography

- When publications are translated into another of IUCN's official languages, there are specific conventions to follow in order to make the citations, references and bibliography coherent and understandable to the reader (see section on [Supporting matter](#)).

Citation of the translated work

- When citing a translation, the citation should include the title of the translated work with the name of the translator and the original title included in square brackets, e.g.

Adams, W.M. and Jeanrenaud, J.S. (2008). *Le passage à la durabilité : vers un monde humain et divers*. Gland, Switzerland: UICN. [Trans. Amalia de Klemm. *Transition to Sustainability: Towards a Humane and Diverse World* (Gland, Switzerland: IUCN, 2008).]

Translation of references and bibliography

- First and foremost, it is necessary to ensure that the references in the text can be easily linked to the entries in the bibliography.
- When preparing the references for a translated publication, the citation of a book should only be translated if the book has actually been published in the language in question. This applies to the entire citation, including the publisher name and city/country of publication, e.g.

Citation in the original publication:

Sue Stolton, Kent H. Redford and Nigel Dudley (2014). *The Futures of Privately Protected Areas*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

Citation in the Spanish translation:

Sue Stolton, Kent H. Redford and Nigel Dudley (2014). *Áreas Bajo Protección Privada: Mirando al Futuro*. Gland, Suiza: UICN.

Note that the above citation may be included in Spanish as a Spanish version of this publication has actually been published.

- On the other hand, if the book being cited has not been published in the language in question, the translator may help the reader by adding an approximate translation between brackets following the title. The other parts of the citation should remain in the original language, e.g.

Hart, Sharelle (ed.) (2008). *Shared Resources: Issues of Governance (Ressources partagées : Questions sur la gouvernance)*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

- For the citation of articles, the same rules as above apply. If the periodical is published in both languages, the translated title may be given. If not, the original title of the article, followed in brackets by a translation, must be retained.
- Footnotes and references within running text should match their entries in the

bibliography, thereby clearly linking the two. In other words, if a citation in the bibliography has been translated (because the book or article has been published in the language of the new translation) then the reference or footnote corresponding to that citation should be translated in the running text.

Translator's notes

- When a publication is being translated and reference is made to a source that has since been published in a more recent edition, the translator should translate the text as it stands and add Translator notes to the bottom of the page, informing the reader of the newer version of the book, e.g.

² Note that a new version was published in 2014. *Trans.*

Or

² [Note that a new version was published in 2014. *Trans.*]

- Translator notes should be inserted where appropriate among the other footnotes and the original numbering continued. Footnote 1 might be followed by a Translator's note which would become Footnote 2, and then the numbering would continue with Footnote 3.

Appendix 2: IUCN-specific spellings

Our name

IUCN is the name by which we would like to be known. However, when addressing audiences that might be unfamiliar with our name, there are two ways to use it, e.g.

A report published by IUCN, International Union for Conservation of Nature, has stated that ...

Or

A report published by IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) has stated that ...

Note that 'the' is never used before 'IUCN'. See for further information, the *IUCN Brand book (for staff)* (<https://portals.iucn.org/union/node/5004>).

Terminology for IUCN usage

The *Terminology for IUCN usage* (<https://portals.iucn.org/union/node/5046>) includes terms in IUCN's three statutory languages that should be used in IUCN documents. The purpose is to ensure consistency in spelling, including use of capitals and lower case, across all IUCN documents.

IUCN Red List (www.iucnredlist.org)

The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species™ is one of IUCN's flagship products. Care should be taken to refer to it correctly.

The first mention of the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species™ should be written in full with 'The' (note the capital T) and the trademark symbol; thereafter it is acceptable to refer to it as "the IUCN Red List" or "the Red List".

When referring to IUCN Red List Categories and Criteria, a capital letter should be used for each of the categories, e.g. Endangered, Extinct in the Wild, Vulnerable. Capital letters should also be used for their abbreviations, e.g. EN, EW, etc. Take care to make a distinction between the category and other parts of speech. Capital letters should also be used for the terms 'Categories' and 'Criteria' when used in combination with 'IUCN Red List'.

The black rhino is **threatened** with extinction. (*used as a verb*)

But

The American bison is listed as **Near Threatened** in the IUCN Red List. (*used as the category*)

Appendix 3: Common spellings for IUCN usage

Some common spellings (and hyphenated words)

Aboriginal
above-mentioned
advertising/advertise
adviser/advisor
analysed
benefit-sharing
biodiversity
broad-leaf forest
by-catch
by-product
camera trapped
catalyse
characterised
coexist
colour
colouration
cooperation
cooperative
coordinate
criticising
cross-cutting (*adjective*)
decision-maker (*noun*)
decision-making process (*adjective*)
depredation
Earth (the planet)
earth (soil, ground)
email
emphasised
ex situ
Facebook
favour
field work (2 words)
foothills
forum/forums
fresh water (noun)
freshwater (*adjective*)
fundraise, fundraising
handmade
headquarters
home-made
home range (*noun*)
home-range (*adjective*)
indigenous (*adjective, not used in combination with 'peoples', e.g. indigenous species*)
Indigenous peoples
Indigenous peoples' organisations (IPO)
Indigenous Peoples' (Organisations) Members (*in reference to IUCN Members*)
in situ
internet (but 'Internet Explorer')

landowner
long-term (*adjective*)
macroeconomic
microeconomic
micro-organisms
mid-day
mission (IUCN)
multi-stakeholder
native peoples
ongoing
online
organisation, organise
overdeveloped
overestimate
overexploit
overpopulate
per cent
policymaker (*noun*)
policymaking (*adjective*)
poorly known
predation
radio-collared
radio-tracked
rainforest (*1 word*)
rechecked (*no hyphen*)
recognise
re-cover (to cover again)
re-entered
re-establish
regroup
reintroduction
self-confident
semi-arid
socio-economic
subadult
sub-aquatic
subgroup
sub-national
sub-Saharan
subsamples
subspecies
sub-title
summarise
travelling
tree-line
Twitter
underestimate
an up-to-date fact
vision (IUCN)
website
well-being
a well-known fact
Wi-Fi
wildlife
worldwide
YouTube

Common errors

'Data' is plural: Data *are* available on ...

Outside of Barcelona

Rather: Outside Barcelona

The study on invasive species should of been completed by April

Rather: The study on invasive species should have been completed by April.

The change in climate impacted the species' migration patterns.

Rather: The change in climate had an impact on ...

The book comprises of several chapters written by experts.

Rather: The book comprises several chapters written by experts.

Or: The book is comprised of several chapters.

This year's inflation rate has been comparatively high.

Rather: This year's inflation rate was 20% in France, but was comparatively low in Switzerland.

The IUCN office in Gland is closed from 22–25 April.

Rather: The IUCN office in Gland is closed 22–25 April.

The IUCN office in Gland is closed between 22 and 25 April (ambiguous).

Rather: The IUCN office in Gland is closed from 22 through 25 April.

This conference will attract a large amount of scientists.

Rather: This conference will attract a large number of scientists.

One of the **principle** reasons for the extinction crisis is loss of habitat.

Rather: One of the **principal** reasons for the extinction crisis is loss of habitat.

The Director General wrote the **Forward** to the book.

Rather: The Director General wrote the **Foreword** to the book.

Farther (physical distance) / further (additional degree, time or quantity)

The study showed that the jaguar ran farther than the impala, but a further study is needed to confirm this.

Discreet (careful, circumspect) / discrete (individual, separate)

We can rely on our colleagues in Human Resources to be discreet. / The study was broken down into eight discrete modules.

Practice (noun) / practise (verb)

The practice of leaving a field fallow for a number of years is widely practised.

Advice (noun) / advise (verb)

The scientist's advice is worth listening to; he advises caution when handling invasive species.

Dependant (noun) / dependent (verb)

I declared my son as a dependant on my tax form, but this was dependent upon the legislation at the time.

Licence (noun) / license (verb)

His hunting licence had expired; the city authorities are the only ones who can license this practice.

Jargon

Much of IUCN's work is technical or scientific. This information should be translated into language that is easily understood by a broad audience. The Communications Unit has produced [Writing for the IUCN website](#), which contains a list of jargon that should be avoided or explained.

Appendix 4: IUCN statutory regions and country names

The list is regularly updated in function of the membership of the United Nations, of its Specialized Agencies, of the International Atomic Energy Agency or the parties to the Statute of the International Court of Justice and with the names as published on the respective websites of these institutions. For any questions or more information, please contact the IUCN Publications Officer (publishing@iucn.org).

AFRICA

Algeria
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cabo Verde
Cameroon
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Republic of the Congo
Djibouti
Egypt
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Eswatini
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Libya (State of)
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Morocco
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone

Somalia
South Africa
South Sudan
Sudan
Togo
Tunisia
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe

MESO AND SOUTH AMERICA

Argentina
Belize
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Guyana
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Suriname
Uruguay
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)

NORTH AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Antigua and Barbuda
Bahamas
Barbados
Canada
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Grenada
Haiti
Jamaica
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Trinidad and Tobago
United States of America

SOUTH AND EAST ASIA

Bangladesh
Bhutan
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Democratic People's Republic of Korea
India
Indonesia
Japan
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Maldives
Mongolia
Mongolia
Myanmar
Nepal
Pakistan
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Singapore
Sri Lanka
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam

WEST ASIA

Afghanistan
Bahrain
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Oman
Palestine
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syrian Arab Republic
United Arab Emirates
Yemen

OCEANIA

Australia
Cook Islands
Fiji
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu

EAST EUROPE, NORTH AND CENTRAL ASIA

Albania
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Georgia
Hungary
Kazakhstan
Kosovo
Kyrgyzstan
Latvia
Lithuania
Montenegro
North Macedonia
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia
Slovakia
Slovenia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Ukraine
Uzbekistan

WEST EUROPE

Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Holy See
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Liechtenstein
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
Türkiye
United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

Appendix 5: Other IUCN resources

There are a number of other tools available for reference when preparing an IUCN document for publication.

IUCN Publishing Guidelines (portals.iucn.org/union/node/5006/686)

These guidelines provide IUCN programmes and staff with comprehensive information to assist them in producing publications to the highest scientific and visual standards. They explain the various stages of producing a publication and provide a checklist of practical items to make the publishing process as efficient and simple as possible.

IUCN Brand Book (portals.iucn.org/union/node/5004/686), **and Guidelines and Templates** (<https://portals.iucn.org/union/node/5148/686>)

These brand rules and guidelines and templates help IUCN to express itself and its work in a way that clearly supports the Union's positioning and the messages it communicates. The simple but strict rules contained in this manual lay out how we express our Union and our work visually. They guide the layout, colour and typeface for all materials produced by IUCN, thereby creating a strong, clear visual identity for the Union.

Terminology for IUCN usage – English, French and Spanish

(portals.iucn.org/union/node/5046/686)

A list of terms that are frequently used in IUCN documents has been translated into both French and Spanish. All IUCN Secretariat staff and Commissions who are having publications translated from English into either French or Spanish should provide this list to their translators before translation begins. This ensures consistency of terminology across IUCN, even in translated documents.



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